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ABSTRACT

This paper outlines four principles for preparing multimedia instructional sequences and, where necessary, the experimental methods for applying the principles successfully. Covered first are the criteria for good terminology for unfamiliar objects, actions, and situations, with methods for deriving such terminology. In the next section guidelines are set forth for overlapping visual and spoken elements in time so as to enable students to form good associations. After a discussion of the rationale behind dividing instructional units into conceptual units that are in agreement with people's natural conceptualization, a method is presented for determining students' natural conceptualization. Addressed in the final section are procedures for combining audiovisual instruction with hands-on practice in a learning procedure. The paper includes specific instructional procedures as well as discussions of the empirical experiments on which the principles are based. (MN)

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Four Principles for Designing Instructions

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Technical Report No. 121-ONR

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20. ABSTRACT (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number)

This paper gives four principles for preparing multimedia instructional sequences, and, where necessary, the experimental methods for applying the principles successfully. It also describes the empirical experiments on which the principles are based. Principle One is a criterion for good terminology for unfamiliar objects, actions, and situations, with methods for deriving such terminology. Principle Two tells how to overlap visual and spoken elements in time (as in

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a movie or lecture with slides) in order for good associations to be formed. Principle Three states that division of instructions into conceptual units should be in agreement with people's natural conceptualization. Here, a method is presented for finding the natural conceptualization. Finally, Principle Four regards mixing audiovisual instruction with hands-on practice in learning a procedure. These principles should be useful in a variety of situations.

Four Principles for Designing Instructions

ABSTRACT

This paper gives four principles for preparing multimedia instructional sequences, and, where necessary, the experimental methods for applying the principles successfully. It also describes the empirical experiments on which the principles are based. Principle One is a criterion for good terminology for unfamiliar objects, actions, and situations, with methods for deriving such terminology. Principle Two tells how to overlap visual and spoken elements in time (as in a movie or lecture with slides) in order for good associations to be formed. Principle Three states that division of instructions into conceptual units should be in agreement with people's natural conceptualization. Here, a method is presented for finding the natural conceptualization. Finally, Principle Four regards mixing audiovisual instruction with hands-on practice in learning a procedure. These principles should be useful in a variety of situations.

Four Principles for Designing Instructions

Introduction

This article contains four principles for designing multimedia instructions. By multimedia is meant visual and verbal material (such as a film or a text with illustrations) and actual practice. The instructions we have focussed on are for assembly of physical objects, but the principles are not restricted to application only in assembly.

The first principle deals with how to construct terminology for use with unfamiliar objects, actions, or situations. The second principle is how to overlap visual and spoken material in time, in order for good associations to be made. The third principle tells how to divide instructional material into conceptual units. And the fourth deals with mixing audiovisual instruction with hands-on practice.

Principles one through four are in general both task- and subject-dependent. For example, the right terminology depends on the task or the material presented, and on the verbal abilities of the subjects. The amount of hands-on practice could depend on subjects' manual dexterity and experience with similar kinds of tasks.

For the principles which are subject- or task-dependent, we present here the experimental methods which one can use to determine subject and task parameters. For example, in Part I we present an experimental method of how to develop terminology which is adequate for a task and for subjects who will perform the task. In Part III we present an experimental method for the division of material into conceptual units. It is again task- and subject-dependent.

In some cases we can suggest general principles, namely, specific do's and don't's that should apply to any task and any group of subjects. For example,

in Part II, a visual presentation should precede or be in synchrony with the related spoken presentation, and not follow it. The general principles which we present have been derived from empirical experiments, or are consistent with what we know from the experiments.

Part I: Developing Terminology

The Principle: The criteria for good terminology to use with unfamiliar objects, actions, or situations are that the terminology:

(a) be natural, so people with no experience can use it;

(b) be short, so that in a verbal communication, only a few words of description are needed;

(c) be well remembered; and

(d) form a classification system. That is, names of objects should contain generic terms and, when necessary, one or more modifiers.

We give here the experimental method for deriving terminology which meets the above criteria. Part of the method is described in detail in [1]. It is extended and improved here.

The method for creating good names for unfamiliar objects is an iterative procedure with three steps:

Step 1. Names are generated for each of the objects by a group of subjects.

Step 2. From the names generated by subjects, the experimenter chooses a subset of the names, according to the following criteria: (1) the modal name is chosen, namely, if a particular name is generated more often than others, it is chosen; (b) shorter names are preferred; and (c) the names chosen stay within the classification system provided by the subjects.

Step 3. How good the names are is tested by measuring, first, how well people can match the names with the objects they describe, and second, how well they can recall the names, given the objects.

Steps 2 and 3 can be iterated: If a given name is poorly matched or

recalled, it can be replaced by another generated name and tested again.

In our experiment, the items to be named were the 48 different pieces from the Fischer-Technik 50 assembly kit. One such piece is shown in Figure 1. It is red plastic, with an actual size of 15 x 15 x 7.5mm (.6 x .6 x .3 in). We show here how it was named.

Insert Figure 1 about here

In Step 1, fourteen people[1] named it as follows: red H block, all purpose joint, universal connector, X-joint, H piece, universal connector, H joint, holder, universal frame connection, large block connector, flat grooved connector (female), red ___, flat bracket with grooves, block 2.

These names were formed into a graph, as shown in the upper panel of Figure 2. The graph has nodes containing the different words.

Insert Figure 2 about here

It also has directed links, from A to B, for all cases when two words, A and B, were given consecutively in a name, with A preceding B. There are also start and end nodes. The number of times a particular word was used is given in parentheses under its node, for all words used twice or more.

One has options in forming the graph. For example, one can decide to form grammatical categories, so that "block" can occur on the graph as both adjective and noun. (We did.) One can decide to collapse the nodes "grooved" and "with" and "grooves" into one node, "grooved". (We did.)

From this graph, a composite naming diagram was formed, as shown in the lower panel of Figure 2. It is a subgraph consisting of all nodes with words mentioned at least twice. (How many times a word must be mentioned in order for

it to appear on the composite naming diagram is determined by the experimenter, depending on the number of subjects run and the variety of words. We chose two.)

From the composite diagram, a name was chosen, using the guidelines of (a), (b), (c), and (d) above. Names suggested as candidates from the diagram were: block, red H block, red H joint, H block, H joint, flat grooved connector, and universal connector. These were only suggestions; the experimenter could choose as a name any shortened name (e.g., red block, grooved connector) or any name formed from unlinked combinations of modifiers and noun (e.g., universal block, flat H joint). We chose the name red H joint for iteration 1.

In a similar manner, a name was selected for each of the other 48 pieces. These are called iteration one names. The 48 iteration one names were used to begin the iterative procedure. That is, they were tested (using new subjects) for matching and recall. In scoring the matching and recall tasks, the errors clearly indicated misleading names. These names were changed for the next iteration. Usually a new name from the composite naming diagram was selected. Sometimes, when the composite naming diagram did not suggest a new name, more subjects generated names for the piece(s), and a new name was chosen from the new composite naming diagram.

If a new name involved a change in category for a piece (as "strip" to "rail" or "plate" to "platform"), names of all other pieces in that category were changed to the new one.

The names for the piece in Figure 1 were red H joint, grooved H joint, and H joint for iterations 1, 2, and 3 respectively. (The manufacturer's name for it is building block 7.5.)

Percentage correct for the 48 names on matching and recall, and the average number of words per name, are given in Table 1 for each of the three iterations, and for the names appearing in the manufacturer's instruction booklet. Table 1

shows that in general, as iterations progressed, names became shorter and were better matched with their physical referents and better recalled. All groups with subject-derived names (iterations 1, 2, and 3) substantially outperformed the group with the manufacturer's names.

The number of iterations needed to derive the names will probably vary with the items to be named. In our study, only three iterations were used because the score on the matching task on iteration three was nearly 100% and therefore could not be significantly increased.

This technique to derive good names has two nice properties:

(1) It gets around the problem of having to specify what should (always) and should not (ever) be included in a name. For example, it does not specify if color, size, or shape should be included.

(2) It is subject-driven. The names elected will probably reflect subjects' linguistic abilities and preferences.

A feature of a piece is a part of the piece which needs a name in instructions for assembly. Examples are knob, groove, teeth, and slot. These names were derived as follows.

The same methodology used for the naming schema (but without the iterations) was used. That is:

(1) Subjects generated names for the features.

(2) New subjects were given the feature names and ranked them according to their preference.

(3) The feature was given the name which was most preferred.

Here is an important finding: In most cases, the most frequently generated feature name got the most first place votes (or the highest mean rank ordering). But in a few cases, a less frequently generated name won. This means that, although people cannot necessarily generate the most preferred name, they can nevertheless recognize it.

To derive descriptions of actions required to join pieces, a similar methodology was used:

1. Subjects learned the names derived above for pieces and their features.
2. They studied diagrams and actual pieces in each of two states, unassembled and assembled.
3. They went through the action with the actual pieces, from unassembled to assembled, five times.
4. They wrote down what they did in the form of instructions.

These data showed that of the three parts necessary for a full description, that is, (1) initial condition; (2) action; (3) final condition, about 1/4 of the subjects described (1) and (2), leaving (3) unspecified, and about 3/4 of the subjects described (2) and (3), leaving (1) unspecified. We do not know at the present time which elements of the action descriptions will give the best learning results. We also do not know if the most frequently generated verbs used to describe the actions are the most preferred.

We have given the methodology to derive names for pieces, feature names, and action descriptions that ought to be easily matched with their visual counterparts. This methodology has already been successfully applied in other situations ([2] and [3]) where naming schemas are needed, and it ought to be useful in new situations as well.

The first principle, then, states the criteria for a good system of terminology. And the methodology to derive such terminology is given.

Part II: The Correct Temporal Overlap of Visual and Spoken Elements in a Presentation

The Principle: In order for good associations between the visual and spoken elements in a presentation to occur, the visual part should precede, or be in synchrony with, the spoken part, and not follow it.

This general principle does not require additional experiments for its implementation. It can simply be used as stated.

We describe briefly the experiment we performed, from which we derived the principle. A full version of the experiment is given in [4]. A related experiment, using educational material, is in [5].

Fourteen groups of subjects were shown a thirty minute film which introduced the Fischer-Technik 50 assembly kit, its pieces, their names (the iteration three names derived above), and some of their uses. The film's visuals and narration could be presented in synchrony, or one could be shifted relative to the other up to 21 sec.

Subjects saw the film in one of seven versions: visuals moved relative to narration by -21, -14, -7, 0 (synchrony), 7, 14, or 21 sec. They were tested immediately or after seven days for recall of the names, given the pieces. The hypothesis was, the higher the recall, the better the associations.

The results are illustrated in Figure 3. Scores were highest immediately

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Insert Figure 3 about here

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and after seven days for two groups: synchrony and visuals 7 sec before narration. On the immediate test, each of the other five groups scored about 80% of the highest groups. On the test after seven days, the other five groups scored differently: the three narration-first groups performed about 30% less well than the two visuals-first groups. (The statistical analyses, and a theoretical interpretation of the results, are given in [4].)

The temporal order in which visual and auditory elements were presented differentially influenced the formation of visual-verbal associations. When visuals precede narration by up to 7 sec, recall is as good as when visuals and narration are in synchrony. When narration precedes visuals by 7 sec or more,

much of the narration is lost, especially after a delay.

To repeat, then, the principle of how to overlap visual and spoken material in time, in order for good associations to be formed, is: The spoken material should follow, or be in synchrony with, the visual image, and not precede it. The correct temporal overlap of visuals and narration should not be restricted only to films. It should hold as well for illustrated lectures, slide shows, written text with pictures, etc. One should present the visual part early, or simultaneously with the text. Show first and tell second, or show and tell in synchrony, but do not tell first and show second.

Part III: Dividing Instructional Material into Conceptual Units.

The Principle: Decomposition of instructional material into conceptual units should be in agreement with people's natural conceptualization of the task.

In order to implement this principle, three steps are required:

1. Find what the natural conceptualization of a person is.
2. Find if different people conceptualize uniformly (If they do not, probably different conceptualizations of the material are required for different people.)
3. Arrange the material to be presented according to the subjects' conceptualization.

Below, we present the experimental methods for steps (1) and (2). Namely, we present first the technique for finding an individual subject's conceptualization. We then present the technique for determining if subjects conceptualize uniformly, and for constructing a composite conceptualization for a population of subjects. (Step two requires extensive programming.)

Step 1: Finding the natural conceptualization of an individual.

We outline here a methodological schema to find how people divide an object into subassemblies, that is, how they conceptualize it, from the order in which they use the parts in the construction of the object. The assumption we are

making can be illustrated by a simple example. If, in joining four pieces, A, B, C, and D, a person consistently joins A and B, and then C and D, and then joins the two subassemblies, it is expected that in a division into two parts, the person has the concepts (AB) and (CD).

The method used is to have a person ask for pieces one at a time for assembly, and to record the order of request. It has the following underlying hypothesis: In assembling an object from a model or other input, the person conceptualizes the object to be built, and then asks for parts, grouped together according to the conceptual division.

These data are easy to gather, even for complex objects. We will show data from an object (the toy helicopter shown in Figure 4) consisting of 54 pieces, but we estimate that substantially more pieces do not create

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Insert Figure 4 about here

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a problem. The data analysis is also straightforward. It consists of three parts:

1. An assembly object is drawn as an abstract graph whose nodes represent pieces and whose edges (links) represent connections. (This representation can be used on any assembled object, not just Fischer Technik.) The abstract graph of the helicopter shown in Figure 4 is given in Figure 5.[2] Nodes in Figure 5 are numbered 1 through 54, to correspond to specific pieces in the helicopter.

Insert Figure 5 about here

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2. A distance between nodes on the graph is introduced, based on how closely the requests for the different pieces are. (For example, if a person requests piece 10 fifth and piece 11 ninth, the distance between pieces 10 and 11 is | 5 -

$9 | = 4.$)

3. A cluster analysis is performed, and the clusters are used as hypothetical conceptual units of the person building. Each node is put in a cluster with its closest connected neighbor. An example is given in Figure 6 by the thin solid lines on the figure. Then each cluster is put in a

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Insert Figure 6 about here

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higher-order cluster with its closest connected neighbor. These are the dotted lines on the figure. Each of these is put in an even higher-order cluster (the heavy solid lines on the figure). The process is continued until all clusters fall into the same higher order cluster.

This analysis yields a hierarchical tree, which is the hypothetical natural conceptualization of the object by an individual.

Step 2: Finding if different people conceptualize uniformly.

Below we give a method to determine how different conceptualizations from different people, and from one person on different trials, are. That is, are they minor variants of the same conceptualization, or do they form different categories? We demonstrate the method in the context of the experiment we conducted.

Sixteen people built the helicopter five times, once every other day. A physical model was used as a guide on each trial. Each time, the subject was required to request each piece separately, and the order of request was recorded. A person's conceptualization of the helicopter was derived from the order of requests, as described above, using a computer package ([6]).

Among the 80 trials (16 subjects x 5 trials each), all conceptualizations were different. The questions we were able to answer were:

1) Can different conceptualizations be treated as variants of one

conceptualization, or do they form different categories?

2) How does the conceptualization presented in an instructional film we are using compare with subjects' conceptualizations?

The method used was a cluster analysis of the 81 trials, including the conceptualization from the film. The distance between trials is described in the Appendix.

The main result is that the population of trials divided into one large cluster of 66 cases, and three others, having 11, 2, and 2 cases respectively. The conceptualization presented in the instructional film went into the largest cluster.

For a composite graph, the average distance between nodes is computed. The composite conceptualization from the 66 cases is shown in Figure 6.

Our major finding is that over 80% of the trials (66 of 81) fall into the same cluster. This finding is important for individualized instruction. When a collection of trials splits into many different clusters, it means that different people conceptualize differently, and that one person conceptualizes differently at different times. That indicates that in order to improve performance, instructions need to be tailored specifically for a person in a given situation. The fact that 80% of the trials fall in one cluster indicates that, at least for the subject population tested and the object built here, one set of instructions can cover a majority of people. (We have obtained a similar result using a different, more complex, object in another study. There, the majority cluster contains 70% of the trials.)

The fact that the conceptualization from our film (used in Part IV) falls into the largest cluster means that it follows Principle 3. Its conceptualization is the same as that of the majority of the people who will be instructed by it.

In Part III we have given the principle (to be tested in future work) that

the conceptual units given in instructions should conform to people's natural conceptualization. And we have given the methodology to find if people conceptualize uniformly, and the technique for constructing a composite conceptualization for a group of subjects.

Part IV: Learning a Procedure from Multimedia Instructions: The Effects of Film and Practice.

The Principle. For good retention of a procedure to be performed from memory, the arrangement of an instructional sequence consisting of film and practice should be practice first and film second. This is a rule of thumb, to be used when no information is known about the person being trained. When variables such as manual dexterity and experience with similar tasks have been assessed, a training sequence differing from practice first, film second may be better for a particular individual.

We present here a summary of the experiment on which we base the principle. The details are in [7]. A related study, using only pictures and text for instructions, is in [8].

Different modalities of instruction (film versus practice), different amounts of the two, and different orders (film first or practice first) were given to people in the experiment. By practice we mean that people built the object with a physical model sitting before them as a guide. The object to be assembled was the 54 piece helicopter shown in Figure 4. The 12 groups, their instructional sequences, and their time of test, are given in Table 2.

Insert Table 2 about here

The instructional film, shot by James Otis, was 15 min long, in color, and narrated. The conceptual units presented in the film were the same as those of the majority of the people who built the helicopter from a model, in the work

presented in Part III.

After the instructions, including practice where appropriate, each person was required to build the helicopter from memory, either immediately or after a one week delay. Note that the four groups instructed by film alone did not have hands-on practice during training. They built the helicopter only once, from memory. All other groups built the helicopter at least once during training, using a model as a guide. They built it again, this time from memory, during the test trial.

Performance on the memory trial was assessed as follows: The abstract graph of each helicopter built from memory was drawn. The number of correct connections it contained was the dependent measure. (This assesses the similarity in structure of the helicopter built from memory and the correctly built helicopter.) There are 58 connections in the correctly built helicopter (as can be seen in Figure 5), so the range was 0 to 58.

The results are given in Table 3. For convenience in talking about the

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Insert Table 3 about here

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groups, we abbreviate film by F and model by M. For example, the groups who, during training, saw the film first and built the model second, are abbreviated FM.

A Newman-Keuls procedure was used to test differences between pairs of means at zero delay. (See [9].) A separate procedure was used for 7-day delay. The groups who built the helicopter immediately after their instruction line up statistically as follows with respect to their performance from memory:

$$MM = MF = FM > FF = M > F.$$

This result means that some practice is good during instruction, either building twice or building once and seeing a film. (Order of practice and film does not

matter when performance is tested immediately.)

After a seven day delay, the lineup of the groups is different:

MF > MM = FM = M = FF > F.

All groups are depressed to about 50% of their scores when tested immediately, except for one, the group that builds first and sees the film second. Its performance after a week is 30.3/46.7 = 65% of its performance at zero delay. Retention of a procedure to be performed from memory is clearly highest in this group. In general, when a person builds first and then sees a film displaying conceptual units, with names, second, his or her performance is best.[3]

However, individual differences in performance within a group were very great. For example, scores could range from 0 to 58, and an actual range in a single group of 2 to 56 was common. The average standard deviation in a group was over 20%.

This finding leads us to conclude that the right training sequence for a procedure that is to be performed from memory varies, depending on the individual. And this brings up the question of individualized instruction. A goal of our future research is to discover what individualized instruction should contain. Specifically, should instruction be individualized simply by varying the amount given to different people, depending on their experience or skill? Or should it be individualized by giving different modalities, or modalities in different orders, or different conceptualizations, etc.? A second goal of our future work is to develop a small number of brief tests which can be easily given to subjects. Performance on these tests would be used to (a) predict performance as a function of instructions; and (b) assign a person to an appropriate instructional sequence.

Until such tests are available, we recommend that a person's performance be tested after practice, after film instruction, and after various amounts and combinations, to see which gives optimum results. If such testing is not

possible, the instructional sequence should be practice first and film second.

Final Remarks

The four principles presented in this paper were derived from and tested on primarily assembly tasks. Their generalizability to other types of tasks, for example, repair tasks, programming, use of new equipment, etc., should be tested experimentally. The methodologies given here can be easily modified for studying the tasks mentioned above.

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Footnotes

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1. In this and all other experiments reported, the subjects were students enrolled in introductory psychology at the University of Colorado who participated as part of a class requirement.

2. The connections to be considered can be set for each analysis. Here we consider only physical connections. There are 58 in the helicopter. We could have considered as many as $\binom{54}{2} = 1431$.

3. In our experiment, we put a limit on the type and amount of instruction. The theoretical rationale for this is given in [7]. When there is no such limit, longer sequences, such as practice first, film second, practice third, might prove even better than the arrangement suggested here.

Figure Captions

Figure 1. A piece from the assembly kit. Its actual size is 15 x 15 x 7.5mm (.6 x .6 x .3in).

Figure 2. Upper panel: A graph of the 14 names generated for the piece shown in Figure 1. The nodes contain the different words. The links are directed from A to B, for all cases when two words, A and B, were given consecutively in a name, with A preceding B. The number of time a particular word was used is given in parentheses under its node, for all words used twice or more.

Lower panel: A composite naming diagram. It is a subgraph consisting of all nodes with words mentioned at least twice. Names for the piece in Figure 1 suggested as candidates from the diagram are: block, red H block, red H joint, H block, H joint, flat grooved connector, and universal connector.

Figure 3. Percentage correct on recall of names, given the pieces, as a function of degree of asynchrony between the visual and spoken material in the film, and delay between the film and the test (zero- or 7-day).

Figure 4. A toy helicopter built from 54 pieces of the Fischer-Technik 50 assembly kit.

Figure 5. An abstract graph of the toy helicopter shown in Figure 4. The nodes represent pieces in the helicopter, and the links represent physical connections.

Figure 6. The composite conceptualization of the helicopter from the majority group (66 of 81 trials). The method for obtaining this division into conceptual units is given in the text.

Figure 7. Pieces p_1 and p_2 occur in conceptualizations T_i and T_j as shown. In T_i, p_1 and p_2 are in the same first order cluster, so that their height equals one. In T_j, they are in the same second order cluster, so that their height equals two.

Appendix

There are two steps in doing the cluster analysis on a group of conceptualizations. Both are done using the computer package in [6].

1. Find the distance between all pairs of conceptualizations;
2. Do a cluster analysis on the space of all pairs of conceptualizations, with distances defined from step 1.

The details required for each step are given below:

1. The distance between conceptualization on two trials T_i and T_j is defined as follows:

It is the sum (over all 58 connected pairs of pieces in the helicopter) of the difference in height in a conceptualization necessary to put a connected pair in the same cluster.

Here is an example. Consider a pair of connected pieces p_1 and p_2. Suppose they are placed in the conceptualizations of T_i and T_j as shown in Figure 7. In conceptualization T_i, p_1 and p_2 are in the same first order cluster. Their height = 1. In conceptualization T_j, p_1 and p_2 are in the

---

Insert Figure 7 about here

---

same second order cluster (dotted). Their height = 2.

The distance between the pair of pieces (p_1,p_2) in conceptualizations T_i and T_j is the difference in their heights, 2-1 =1.

The distance between T_i and T_j is the sum (over all 58 pairs) of these distances.

2. A cluster analysis is done on the conceptualizations, with each one put in a cluster with its closest connected neighbor (as described in Part 3).

Table 1: Percentage Correct on Matching and Recall, and Average Number of Words per Name, for Each of Four Groups

	percentage correct: matching	percentage correct: surprise recall*	average number of words per name
group given names from manufacturer	59.89	27.25	2.94
group given iteration 1 names	89.20	48.64	2.75
group given iteration 2 names	93.92	48.60	2.81
group given iteration 3 names	96.23	50.72	2.60

*No variation was scored as correct. For example, for the triangle joint, the name triangular joint was scored as wrong.

Table 2: Experimental Groups for Mixing Modalities in Instruction

stimulus 1	see film	build from model	see film	build from model	-----	-----
stimulus 2	build from model	see film	see film again	build from model again	see film	build from model
test	(immediately, for 6 groups) build helicopter from memory					
test	(after 1 week, for 6 groups) build helicopter from memory					

Table 3: Mean Number of Correct Connections in Helicopter Built From Memory (a score of 58 is possible)

stimulus 1	see film	build from model	see film	build from model	-----	-----
stimulus 2	build from model	see film	see film again	build from model again	see film	build from model
zero delay	46.6	46.7	40.0	49.2	21.3	39.6
7-day delay	23.8	30.3	18.5	24.2	11.4	22.6

Note: Data are from 360 subjects, 15 males and 15 females per group.

They asserted on a questionnaire that they had neither seen the film nor built the helicopter before the experimer

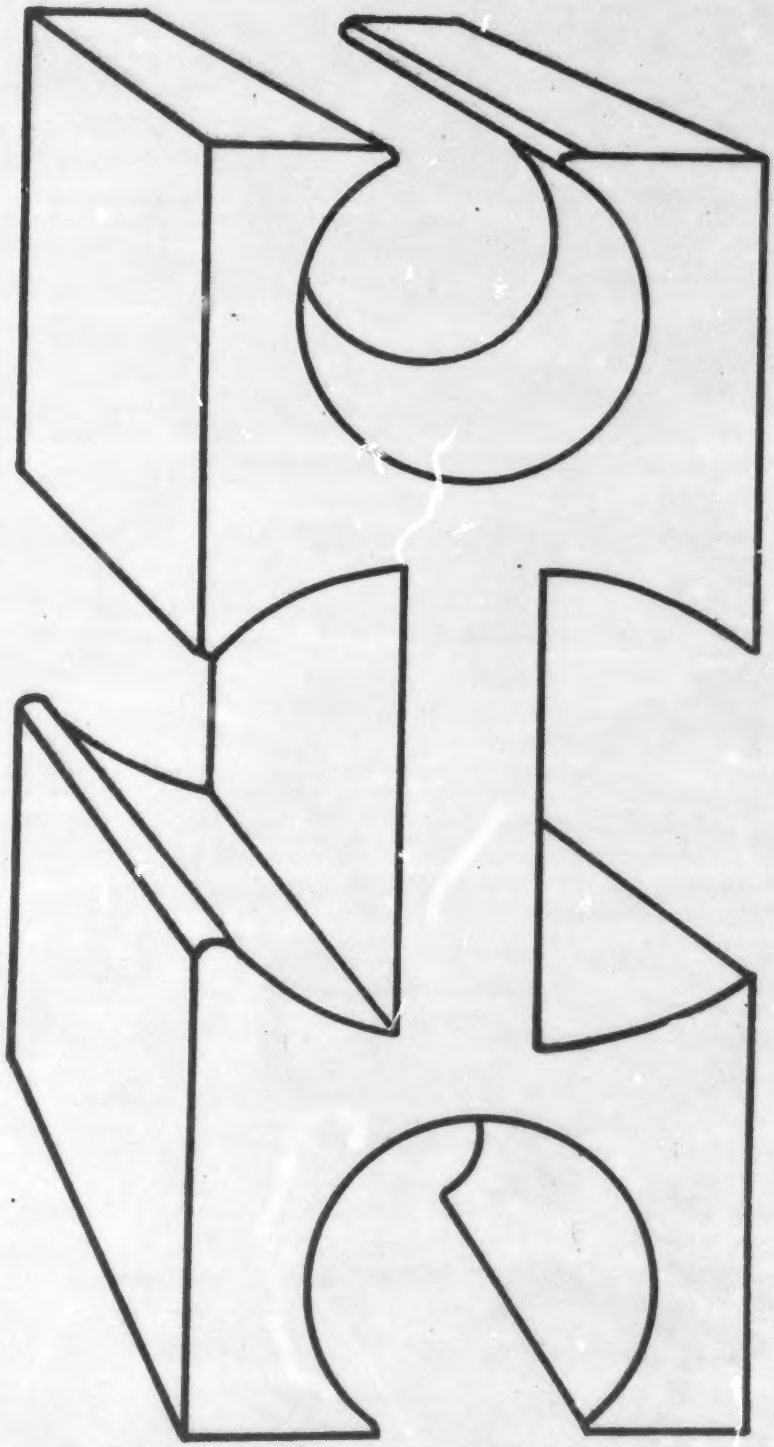
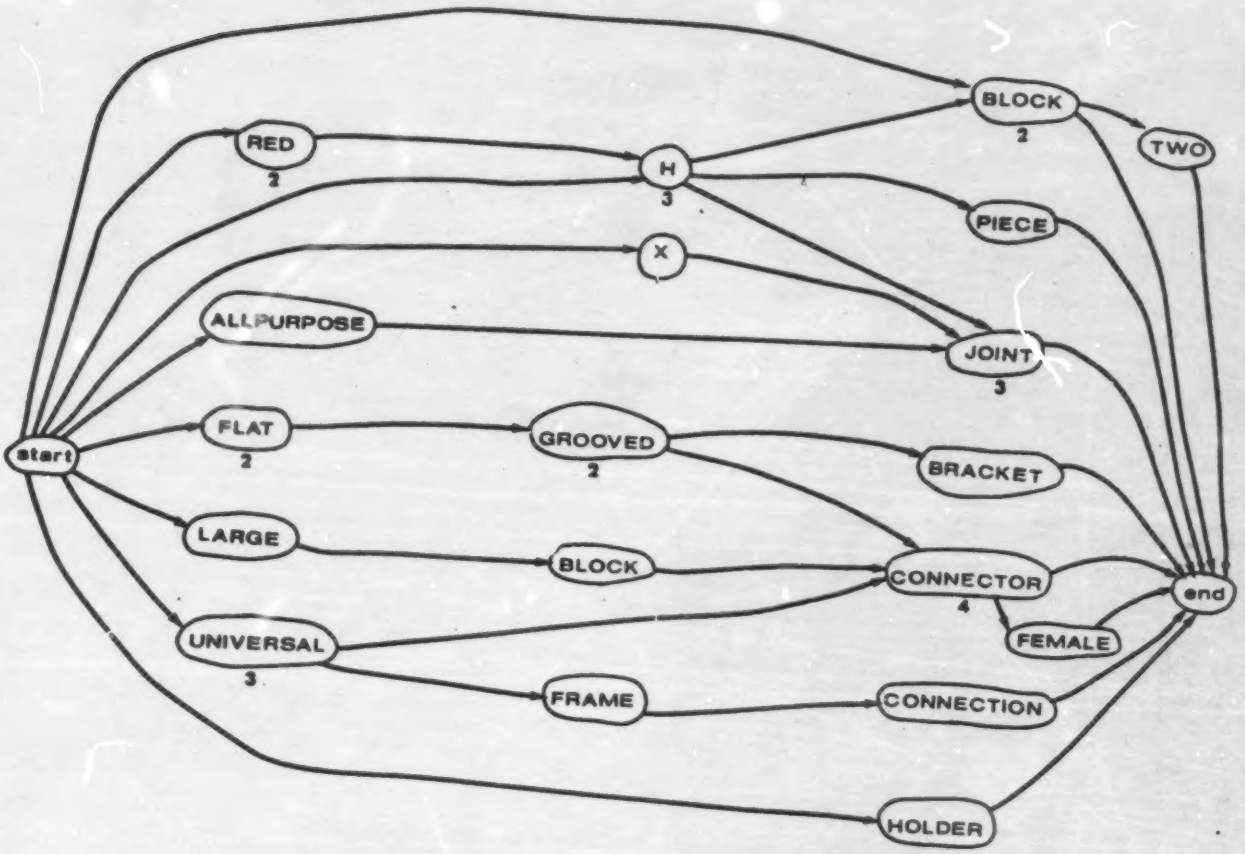


Figure 1


BLOCK
2
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RED
2
H
3
PIECE
X
ALLPURPOSE
JOINT
3
FLAT
2
GROOVED
2
BRACKET
start
LARGE
BLOCK
CONNECTOR
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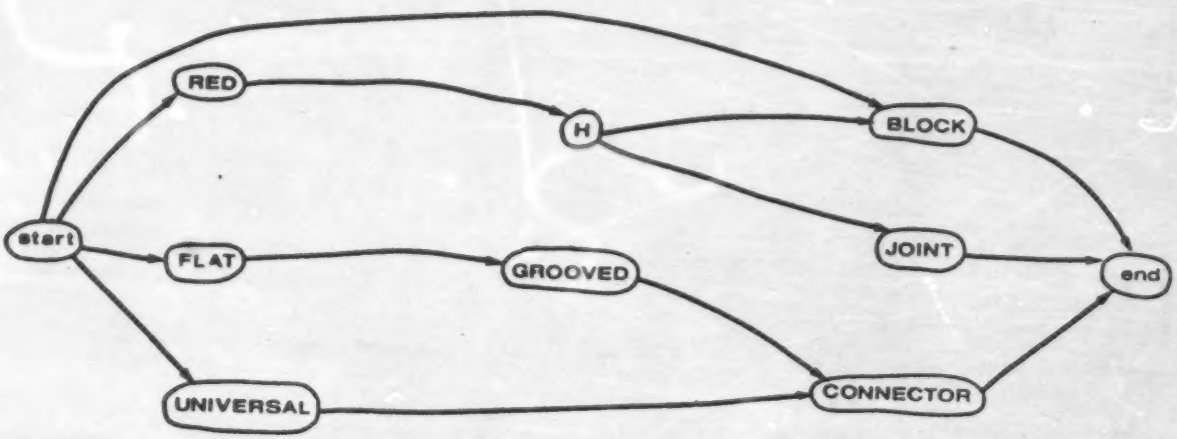
end
FEMALE
UNIVERSAL
3
FRAME
CONNECTION
HOLDER


RED
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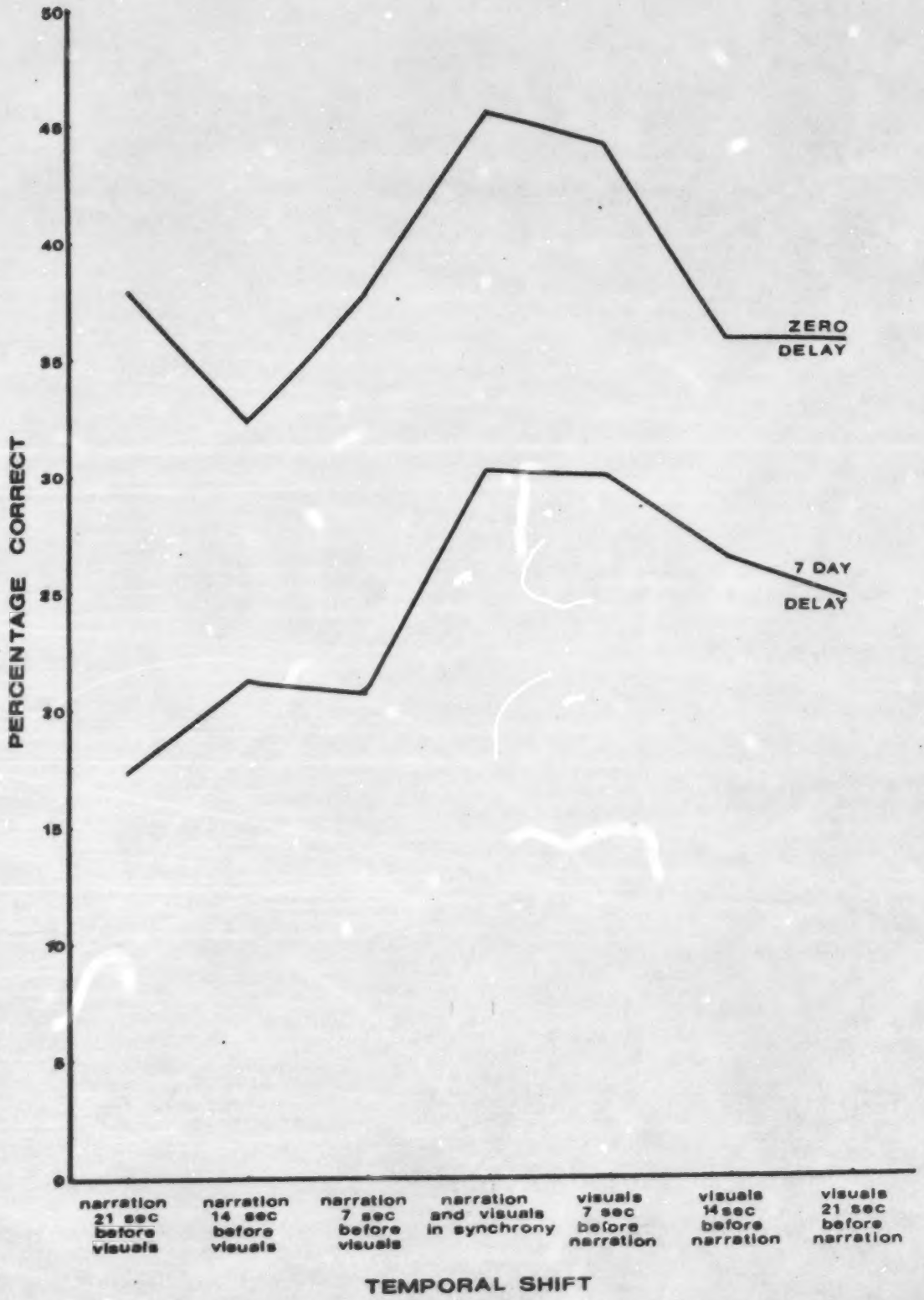
UNIVERSAL
CONNECTOR

Figure 2


PERCENTAGE CORRECT
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15
10
5
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ZERO DELAY
7 DAY DELAY
narration 21 sec before visuals
narration 14 sec before visuals
narration 7 sec before visuals
narration and visuals in synchrony
visuals 7 sec before narration
visuals 14 sec before narration
visuals 21 sec before narration
TEMPORAL SHIFT

Figure 3

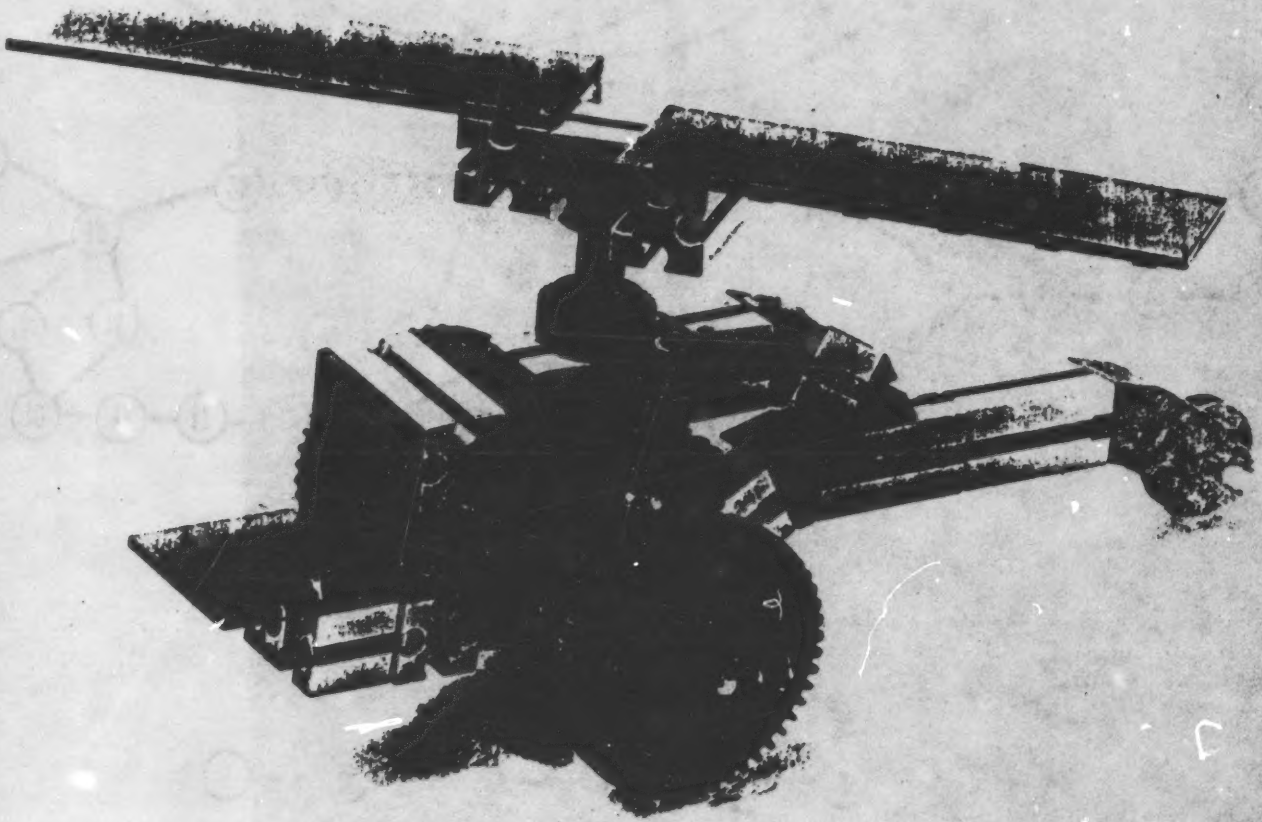

Figure 4

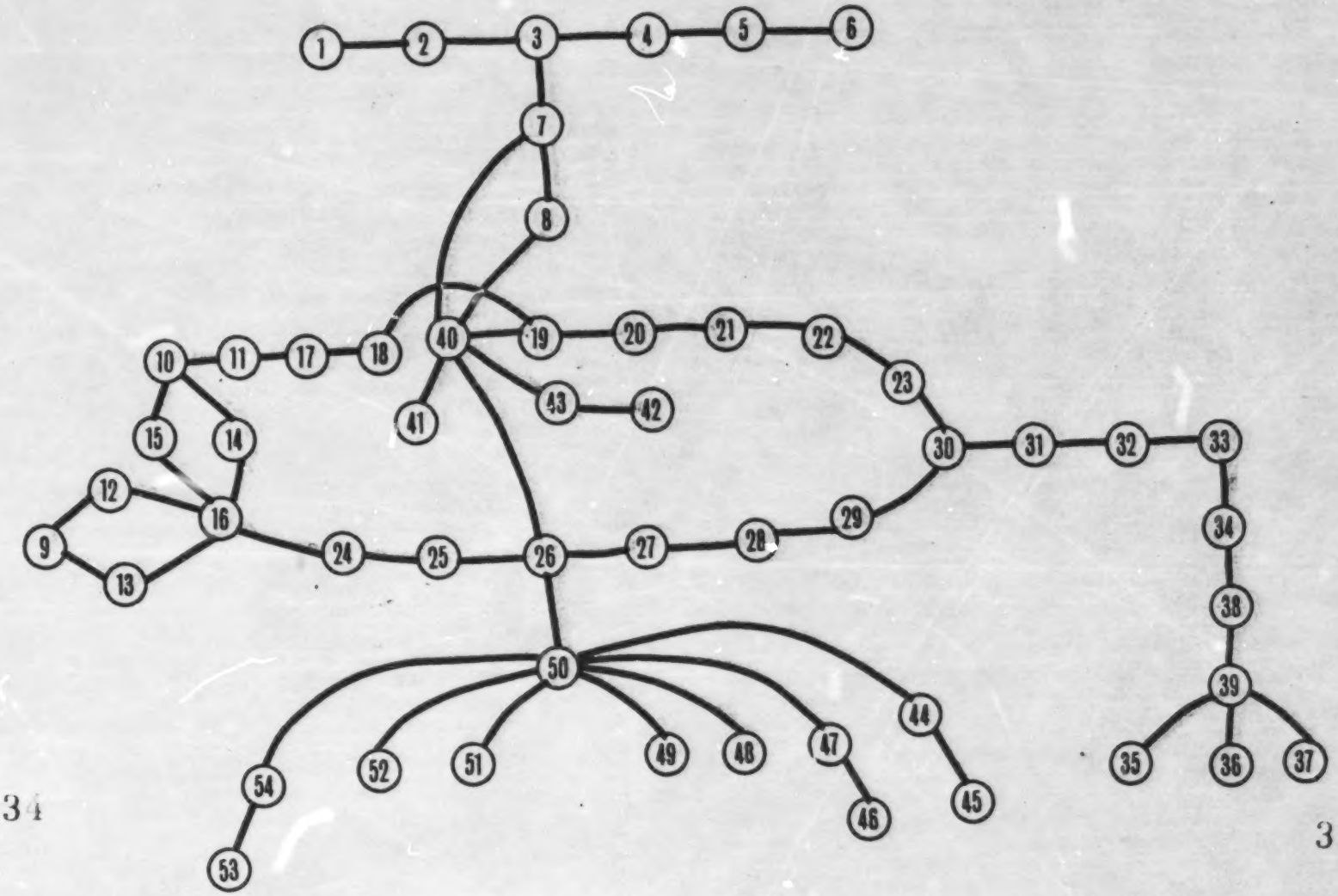

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Figure 5

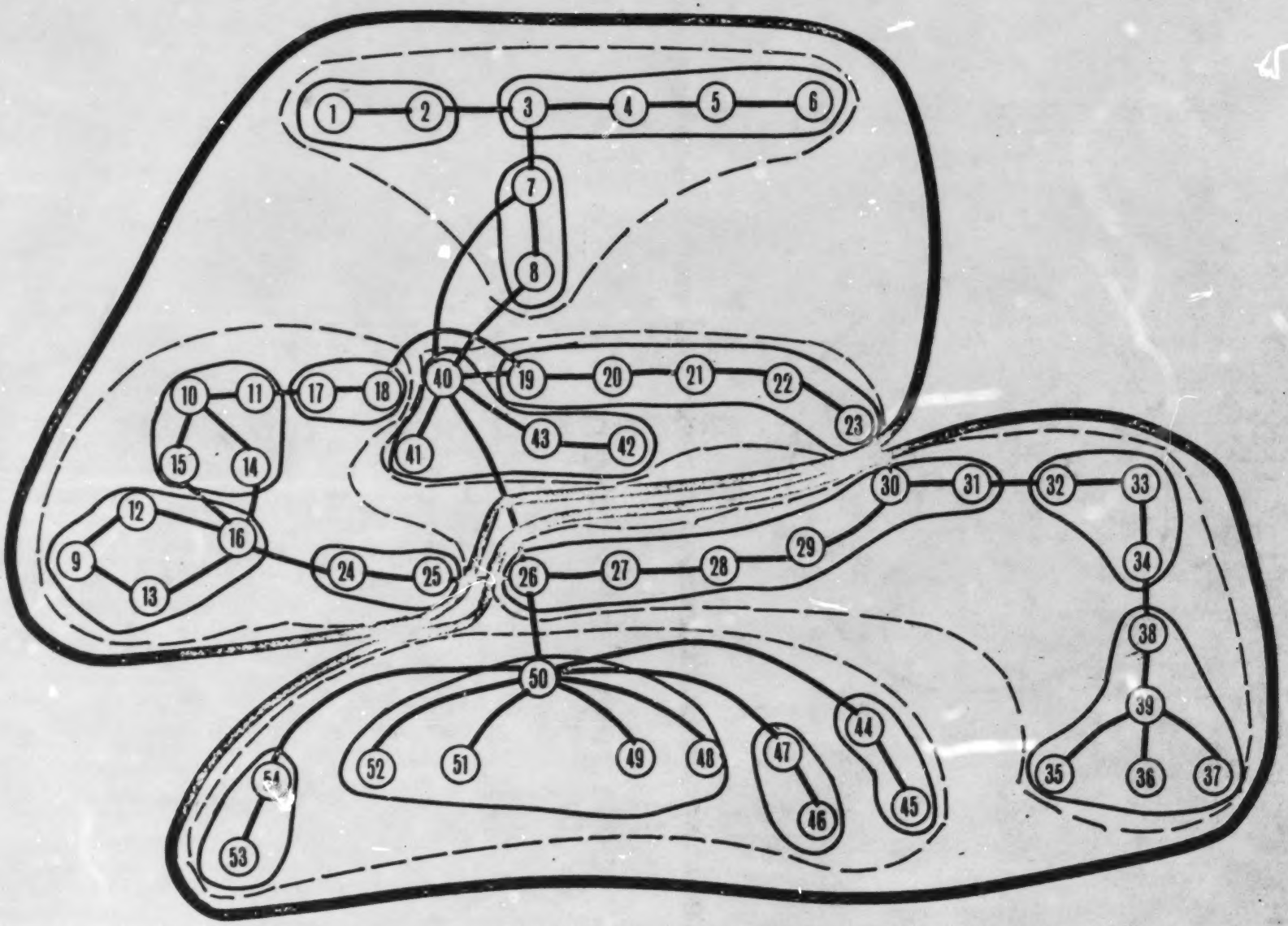
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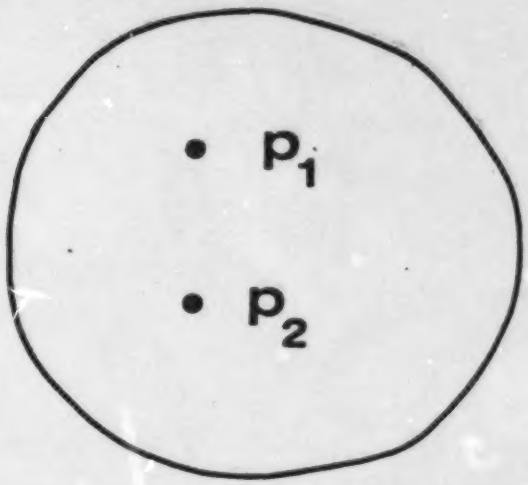
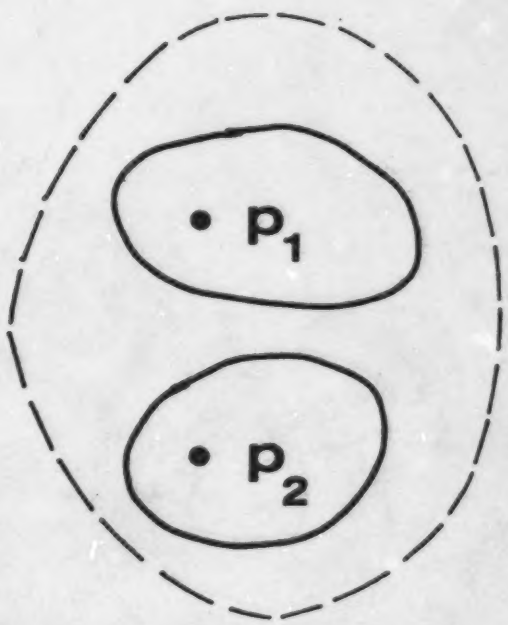
Figure 6

In conceptualization T_i:



In conceptualization T_j:



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